

# A pilot randomised controlled trial of a programme of psychosocial interventions (resettle) for high risk personality disordered offenders

Article

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1	Mismatched prenatal and postnatal maternal depressive symptoms and child						
2	behaviours: a sex-dependent role for NR3C1 DNA methylation in the Wirral Child						
3	Health and Development Study						
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### 22 Abstract

Evolutionary hypotheses predict that male fetuses are more vulnerable to poor maternal 23 conditions (Sex-biased Maternal Investment), but female fetuses are at greater risk of 24 glucocorticoid-mediated disorders where there is a mismatch between fetal and postnatal 25 environments (Predictive Adaptive Response). Self-reported prenatal and postnatal depression 26 and maternal report of child anxious-depressed symptoms at 2.5, 3.5 and 5.0 years were 27 obtained from an 'extensive' sample of first-time mothers (N=794). Salivary NR3C1 1-F 28 promoter methylation was assayed at 14 months in an 'intensive' subsample (n=176), stratified 29 30 by psychosocial risk. Generalised structural equation models were fitted and estimated by maximum likelihood to allow inclusion of participants from both intensive and extensive 31 samples. Postnatal depression was associated with NR3C1 methylation and anxious-depressed 32 33 symptoms in daughters of mothers with low prenatal depression (prenatal-postnatal depression 34 interaction for methylation, p<.001; for child symptoms, p=.011). In girls, *NR3C1* methylation mediated the association between maternal depression and child anxious-depressed symptoms. 35 Effects were greater in girls than boys: the test of sex differences in the effect of the prenatal-36 postnatal depression interaction on both outcomes gave  $\chi^2(2)=5.95$  (p=.051). This is the first 37 study to show in humans that epigenetic and early behavioural outcomes may arise through 38 different mechanisms in males and females. 39

40

41 Key Words: maternal depression: *NR3C1* methylation; child anxiety-depression: sex
42 differences: parental reproductive investment: epidemiological sampling: mediation:
43 longitudinal design

### 44 Introduction

The 'fetal origins' hypothesis was first proposed to account for associations between low birth 45 weight and obesity, cardiovascular disease, and Type II diabetes in middle and old age [1]. 46 According to this hypothesis, low birth weight reflects evolved adaptive mechanisms that 47 confer advantages later in life where food is scarce, but create risk in the presence of high 48 calorie diets, common in industrialised societies. Far from being a mechanism specific to 49 nutrition in humans, adaptations prior to birth that anticipate later environments are found 50 across species, possibly reflecting a conserved 'Predictive Adaptive Response' (PAR) 51 52 mechanism [2, 3]. According to the PAR hypothesis, matched prenatal and postnatal conditions will be associated with good outcomes, while mismatching creates risks for poor outcomes. In 53 relation to effects on psychiatric disorders, many studies have reported that anxiety, depression 54 55 and behavioural symptoms in children are predicted by prenatal stressors, maternal depression and anxiety, and by low birth weight [4 - 9]. We have previously reported that the association 56 between prenatal anxiety and child emotional and behavioural outcomes is seen only in the 57 presence of low maternal stroking, consistent with animal studies of the protective effects of 58 postnatal tactile stimulation [8]. We went on to show that mismatched prenatal – postnatal 59 60 maternal anxiety is associated with elevated child irritability at age 7 years, only in the presence of low maternal stroking REF, consistent with a mismatch effect creating vulnerability that is 61 62 modified by early tactile stimulation.

Fetal adaptations may additionally vary by sex of the fetus. According to the Trivers-Willard (T-W) hypothesis, if maternal health during pregnancy predicts later reproductive fitness in the offspring, then a male predominance of births will be favoured when maternal conditions are good, because healthy males compete successfully for females. By contrast, when maternal conditions are poor, the sex ratio will be reversed, both to avoid bearing males who compete less successfully for females, but also because, compared to females, health

69 outcomes for mothers following male births are poorer [10]. Although this hypothesis has been 70 subject to challenges and modifications [11], the central idea that reproductive strategies associated with poor maternal conditions involve sacrifice of males and protection of females 71 72 has received substantial support. It is also consistent with well documented observations that male fetuses are more vulnerable to threats such as preterm birth and are more likely to suffer 73 neurodevelopmental consequences of fetal insults [12]. This hypothesis would appear to 74 75 predict better outcomes for females following poor maternal conditions. However, if this protective effect in females arises from advantages conferred by fetal anticipation of matched 76 77 environments (PAR hypothesis), mismatches between maternal conditions during pregnancy and the postnatal environment will create vulnerability. Combining the T-W and PAR 78 79 hypotheses leads to the prediction that the effects of prenatal risks will operate differently in 80 males and females. In females, vulnerability will be generated by particular combinations of 81 prenatal and postnatal risks, while in males, poor outcomes will arise incrementally from degree of prenatal risk. In the only human study we are aware of to have examined the 82 83 combined effects predicted by the T-W and PAR hypotheses, matched environments indexed by prenatal and postnatal depression (low-low and high-high) were associated with better 84 cognitive and motor outcomes over the first year of life than mismatched prenatal and postnatal 85 depression, and this effect was seen in females only [13]. However, many studies have reported 86 87 sex differences in developmental outcomes in relation to prenatal risks, without examining for 88 the interplay with postnatal environments. Sex differences in fetal responses to stress [14], and in later emotional and behavioural problems following maternal anxiety or depression during 89 pregnancy and low birth weight [4, 7, 8, 15, 16], have been identified. 90

In animal models, prenatal and postnatal stress cause long-term elevations in
hypothalamic pituitary axis (HPA) reactivity and anxiety-like behaviours. This is mediated via
reduced glucocorticoid receptor (GR) gene *NR3C1* expression, particularly in the hippocampus

94 which impairs HPA axis feedback mechanisms [17]. The epigenetic process of DNA methylation involves the addition of methyl groups to CpG dinucleotides in gene regulatory 95 regions that are associated with repressed gene expression. Animal findings of the epigenetic 96 97 effects of early life stress have been translated to humans in a study reporting elevated NR3C1 1-F promoter methylation and reduced NR3C1 expression in post-mortem hippocampal tissue 98 of people who have committed suicide and who were abused during childhood, when compared 99 to non-abused [18]. Other studies using peripheral DNA from blood or saliva of infants and 100 101 adolescents have shown increased levels of NR3C1 methylation associated with prenatal and 102 childhood adversities [19, 20, 21]. Several clinical studies examining leukocytes have reported elevated methylation of the homologous human NR3C1 1-F promoter (homologous to the rat 103 104 1-7 promoter) at a specific CpG (CpG unit 22,23, Figure 1) associated with prenatal maternal 105 depression [19, 22-24] and childhood stress [25]. Studies in humans also find associations 106 between prenatal anxiety and postnatal depression in mothers, and adolescent depressive symptoms mediated via HPA axis dysregulation [26, 27], consistent with the role of HPA axis 107 dysregulation in adolescent depression [28]. Higher NR3C1 methylation levels, hypothesised 108 to contribute to reduced NR3C1 expression (18), have been associated with increased salivary 109 cortisol stress responses in infants at 3 months [19] and a flattened cortisol recovery slope 110 following stress in adolescents [29], suggesting methylation of NR3C1 may impair negative 111 112 feedback of the HPA axis.

In the first study to examine the interplay between prenatal and postnatal depression in relation to *NR3C1* gene methylation, we showed that the association between postnatal maternal depression and *NR3C1* 1-F promoter methylation in children was stronger where mothers had reported lower depression during pregnancy, in line with the PAR hypothesis [30]. However, we did not examine for sex differences. Sex differences in glucocorticoid mechanisms associated with prenatal stress have been shown in animal models. In rats, many effects of prenatal stress on later development are seen only in females, and these are abolished by adrenalectomy [31]. The effects predicted by a combination of the T-W and PAR hypotheses, have been demonstrated in starlings where mismatched prehatch-posthatch conditions had a greater effect on corticosterone levels in female than male chicks, but prenatal risk increased mortality in male chicks [32, 33]. In humans, a sex difference in associations between prenatal depression and *NR3C1* 1-F promoter methylation has been reported [34], although the interplay with postnatal depression however was not analysed.

126 In this study we examined predictions based on the T-W sex-biased parental investment and PAR hypotheses. In females, where individual and species vulnerability are reduced by 127 matching environments but increased by mismatching, the presence of good prenatal 128 conditions followed by adverse rearing experiences, and vice versa, will create vulnerability to 129 child anxiety and depression. Based on the animal models, we predicted this effect in females 130 131 will involve altered HPA axis reactivity arising from epigenetic modifications of the GR gene. In males, where individuals are sacrificed for species advantage, the presence of prenatal stress 132 will create vulnerability, unmodified by later environment quality. The animal models suggest 133 that glucocorticoid mechanisms are implicated in excess male deaths under unfavourable 134 maternal conditions, but they may not contribute to effects of prenatal stress on functioning 135 after birth. 136

These predictions were tested in a longitudinal study using measures of prenatal and postnatal depression, of *NR3C1* 1-F promoter region methylation at 14 months of age, and anxious depressed symptoms in children across the preschool period. We predicted that in girls but not boys, low prenatal depression followed by high postnatal maternal depression, and high prenatal depression followed by low postnatal depression will be associated with elevated anxious depressed symptoms and elevated *NR3C1* methylation which will mediate the association between mismatched maternal depression and child anxious depressed symptoms.

- 144 In boys, prenatal and postnatal depression will be independent risks for elevated anxious-
- 145 depressed symptoms, without the interaction between them predicted for females.

### 146 Materials and Methods

147 Design

The participants were members of the Wirral Child Health and Development Study, a 148 prospective epidemiological longitudinal cohort of first-time mothers recruited in pregnancy 149 to study prenatal and infancy origins of emotional and behavioural disorders. The full cohort 150 of 1233 mothers with live singleton births have participated in several waves of assessment 151 with a stratified random sub-sample of 316 identified for additional, more intensive assessment 152 (intensive sample). Strata were defined on the basis of low, medium and high psychosocial 153 154 risk (scores of  $\leq 2, 3$  or  $\geq 3$  on an inter-partner psychological abuse scale provided on entry to the study at 20 weeks of pregnancy), with higher selection probabilities for those at higher risk. 155 Appropriately analysed, the design allows estimates of means and coefficients for the whole 156 157 general population cohort to be derived even for measures available only in the intensive sample [35]. 158

Approval for the procedures was obtained from the Cheshire North and West Research 159 Ethics Committee (UK) (reference no. 05/Q1506/107). The extensive sample was identified 160 from consecutive first-time mothers who booked for antenatal care at 12 weeks gestation 161 between 12/02/2007 and 29/10/2008. The booking clinic was administered by the Wirral 162 University Teaching Hospital which was the sole provider of universal prenatal care on the 163 164 Wirral Peninsula. Socioeconomic conditions on the Wirral range between the deprived inner 165 city and affluent suburbs, but with few from ethnic minorities. The study was introduced to the women by clinic midwives who asked for their agreement to be approached by study research 166 midwives when they attended for ultrasound scanning at 20 weeks gestation. After complete 167 168 description of the study to the women, written informed consent was obtained by the study midwives, who then administered questionnaires and an interview in the clinic. 169

170 Participants

Of those approached by study midwives, 68.4% gave consent and completed the measures, 171 vielding an extensive sample of 1233 mothers with surviving singleton babies. The sampling 172 flow chart has been published previously [35]. The mean age at recruitment of extensive sample 173 participants was 26.8 years (s.d.5.8, range 18-51). Using the UK Index of Multiple Deprivation 174 (IMD) [36] based on data collected from the UK Census in 2001, 36.6 % of the extensive 175 sample reported socioeconomic profiles found in the most deprived UK quintile, consistent 176 with the high levels of deprivation in some parts of the Wirral. Forty-eight women (3.9%) 177 described themselves as other than White British. 178

179 In addition to assessments of the mothers at 20 weeks gestation, mothers and infants provided data at birth and postnatally at 5, 9, and 29 weeks, and at 14.19, s.d. 1.71 months ('14 180 months'), 30.86, s.d. 2.31 months ('2.5 years'), 41.90 s.d. 2.48 months ('3.5 years') and 58.64 181 s.d. 3.74 months ('5 years'). Two hundred and sixty-eight mothers and infants came into the 182 lab at 14 months for detailed observational, interview and physiological measures. This was 183 the first occasion at which saliva for DNA was collected. Seven parents declined consent for 184 DNA collection, 3 samples were spoilt, and 25 assessments were curtailed before saliva 185 collection because of time constraints. Sufficient DNA for methylation analyses was obtained 186 187 from 181 infants. Maternal reports of child anxious-depressed symptoms were available on 253 of the intensive sub-cohort at 2.5 years, on 825 of the whole cohort at 3.5 years and on 768 of 188 189 the whole cohort at 4.5 years.

190 *Measures* 

Maternal depression. Maternal symptoms of depression were assessed at 20 weeks gestation
and at every follow up point using the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS), which
has been used extensively to assess prenatal and postnatal depression [37].

DNA methylation. Methylation status in the NR3C1 1-F promoter was examined at the same 194 CpGs (CpG unit 22 and 23, shown in Figure 1) identified in previous studies (24). DNA 195 collected from Oragene® saliva samples, was extracted, bisulphite treated, amplified (Forward, 196 GACCTGGTCTCTCTGGGG; Reverse, TGCAACCCCGTAGCCCCTTTC) and run on a 197 Sequenom EpiTYPER system (Sequenom Inc., San Diego, US), providing an average for 198 methylation across the two CpG units. Data was transformed to percentage of methylation at 199 CpG unit 22 and 23 to allow for comparison with previous analysis of differential methylation 200 at this locus. 201

202

#### FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

*Child anxious-depressed symptoms.* Child symptoms were assessed by maternal report at 2.5,
3.5 and 5.0 years using the preschool Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) [38]. It has 99 items
each scored 0 (not true), 1 (somewhat or sometimes true), and 2 (very true or often true), which
are summed to create seven syndrome scales. Only the anxious/depressed scale was analysed
for this report, and as recommended in the CBCL manual, raw scores were used [39].

Stratification variable and confounders. Partner psychological abuse was assessed using a 20 208 209 item questionnaire covering humiliating, demeaning or threatening utterances in the partner relationship during pregnancy over the previous year [40]. Maternal age (at this first 210 pregnancy), marital status at 20 weeks gestation, and socioeconomic status were included as 211 212 covariates because of their established associations with adult depression. Socioeconomic status was determined using the revised English Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) [36] 213 based on neighborhood deprivation. All mothers were given IMD ranks according to the 214 215 postcode of the area where they lived and assigned to a quintile, based on the UK distribution of deprivation. Mother's years of education at enrolment in the study was recorded. Information 216 about smoking was obtained at 20 and 32 weeks gestation and was included because of 217

published associations with altered DNA methylation [41]. Birth records provided sex of
infant, one-minute Apgar score, and birth weight and gestational age, from which a measure of
fetal growth was obtained. Low fetal growth is associated with elevated fetal glucocorticoid
exposure and so might be associated with elevated *NR3C1* gene methylation. Obstetric risk
was rated using a weighted severity scale developed by a collaboration of American and Danish
obstetricians and paediatric neurologists [42].

### 224 Statistical Analysis

225 All analyses were undertaken in Stata 14 (StataCorp, 2015). Generalised structural equation models (SEM) were fitted using the sem procedure and estimated by maximum 226 likelihood to allow inclusion of participants from both intensive and extensive strata. The 227 anxiety-depression scores at 2.5, 3.5 and 5.0 years and NR3C1 percent methylation at 14 228 months were highly skewed so scores were log-transformed and Winsorized at 2.5 standard 229 230 deviations to reduce their skew. For further robustness, we report standard errors and p-values based on the heteroscedastic consistent estimator of the parameter covariance matrix. The 231 main analyses included the stratification variable and confounds except for perinatal confounds 232 233 as they may lie on a mediational pathway from prenatal depression, however the effect of adding those variables was examined. Model estimates and tests allowed for differential 234 missingness associated with any of the covariates and observed responses included in the 235 model, accounting for the stratified study design. 236

The pre-post environment mismatch predictions on both methylation and child symptoms were examined first by testing for two-way interactions between prenatal and postnatal depression in models estimated separately in females and males. We then tested for the sex difference by examining the three-way, sex by prenatal depression by postnatal depression interactions in a model that included both genders. The effects of combinations of prenatal and postnatal depression giving rise to these interaction effects are shown in the figures. The
prediction of additive effects of prenatal and postnatal depression in boys was examined in
models without interaction terms.

In the fitted models methylation was specified as a factor, measured without error by the observed methylation, a device that implicitly imputes rates of methylation where these have not been observed, but doing so in a manner which recognises our uncertainty in these unobserved values. This enables participants with partial data that would be informative for some parts of the model to be included.

### 250 **Results**

Table 1 gives summary statistics for males and females separately for the measures 251 included in the analysis and shows the sample size at each data collection point. As described 252 253 in the statistical analysis section, differences in the available sample for different measures were accounted for by use of weighted, maximum likelihood or covariate adjusted estimators. 254 Figure 2 shows the structure of the SEM model in which maternal history of depression predicts 255 NR3C1 methylation (solid red arrows) and maternal report of child anxious-depressed 256 symptoms (solid black arrows). These analyses included the 412 girls and 382 boys on whom 257 258 there were measures of maternal depression and maternal report of child anxious-depressed symptoms at a minimum of one follow up point as well as all confounders. 259

260

### FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

262 <u>Table 1 Summary statistics for outcomes</u>, predictors and variables included as potential

263 confounders for the modelled sample (I = measure based on intensively assessed sub-sample
 264 only)

	Girls			Boys		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Child anxious-depressed symptoms 2.5 years(I)	125	1.54	1.77	120	1.27	1.61
Child anxious-depressed symptoms 3.5 years	387	1.60	1.64	366	1.59	1.70
Child anxious-depressed symptoms 5 years	372	1.76	1.96	347	1.78	2.01
Child <i>NR3C1</i> methylation(I)	89	3.42	1.85	87	3.55	1.96
Prenatal EPDS maternal depression scores	412	6.94	4.74	382	7.42	4.54
Mean postnatal EPDS maternal depression scores	412	5.24	3.92	382	5.79	4.35
Stratum low		77%			75%	
Stratum mid	412	8%		382	7%	
Stratum high	-	16%			18%	
Maternal age <21 years		10%			12%	
Maternal age 21-30 years	412	56%		382	56%	
Maternal age >30 years		34%			32%	
No maternal education beyond age 18	412	62%		382	67%	
Smoking – none		62%			64%	
Smoking before pregnancy	412	21%		382	19%	
Smoking during pregnancy		17%			18%	
No partner	412	17%		382	19%	
Most Deprived Quintile	412	37%		382	36%	
Obstetric risk index	412	2.20	1.18	382	2.20	1.19
Birthweight/gestation (gm/wk)	412	83.6	11.9	382	86.5	11.4
1 Minute Apgar score	412	8.95	1.60	382	8.86	1.76

266 Table 2 shows for girls and boys separately the estimated path coefficients from the standardised prenatal depression, postnatal depression and their interaction (product) of 267 primary interest accounting for the stratification, attrition and confounders. We first tested the 268 prediction that there would be an interaction between prenatal and postnatal depression in girls 269 but not in boys. In girls there was a significant effect of the interaction between prenatal and 270 postnatal depression on both child anxiety-depression (p=.011) and NR3C1 1-F promoter 271 272 methylation (p<.001). For boys, by contrast, anxious-depressed symptoms were not predicted by the prenatal and postnatal depression interaction term (p=.920), and the effect on NR3C1 273 274 methylation was smaller than for girls, though still significant (p=.003). Adding the three additional potential confounders that were assessed after the prenatal exposure (obstetric risk 275 index, 1-minute Apgar score and birthweight/gestational age) made no material difference to 276 277 these associations. Fitting this model to boys and girls together, but allowing the effects of prenatal and postnatal depression exposure on the two correlated outcomes to differ by sex (in 278 addition to a gender main effect), a Wald test of the sex differences in the effect of the prenatal-279 postnatal depression interaction on both outcomes (a difference of 0.20 for anxiety-depression 280 and 0.18 for methylation) gave  $\chi^2(2)$  of 5.95 (p=.051), with the two individual interactions 281 contributing equally (anxiety-depression p=.088, methylation p=.069). 282

#### Table 2 Summary of SEM analyses predicting NR3C1 1-F promoter methylation and child 284 anxious depressed symptoms

### 285

	Female	(n=412)	Male (n=382)							
	Std Coeff	95% C.I	Std Coeff	95% C.I						
	[p-value]		[p-value]							
Effects on child anxious-depressed symptoms										
Prenatal maternal depression	-0.06	-0.23, 0.11	0.16	-0.00, 0.33						
Postnatal maternal depression	0.21	0.05, 0.38	0.17	0.03, 0.31						
Prenatal-postnatal interaction	-0.19	-0.34,-0.05	0.01	-0.11, 0.12						
	[p=.011]		[p=.920]							
Effects on child <i>NR3C1</i> 1-F promoter methylation										
Prenatal maternal depression	02	-0.28, 0.24	-0.11	-0.34, 0.12						
Postnatal maternal depression	0.45	0.16, 0.75	0.38	0.11, 0.65						
Prenatal-postnatal interaction	-0.39	-0.56, -0.21	-0.21	-0.320.08						
	[p=.00001]		[p=.003]							
Child anxious-depressed symptoms factor loadings										
2.5 years	0.81		0.72							
3.5 years	0.80		0.67							
5 years	0.57		0.81							
Model fit										
	RMSEA	= .05 (95%	RMSEA = .01 (95%							
	C.I0307	7) CFI = .90	C.I0104). CFI = 1.00							

287

Legend. The table shows standardized factor loadings of child CBCL anxious-depressed 288

symptoms at ages 2.5, 3.5 and 5 years, and main effects and effects of interaction of prenatal 289

and postnatal depression in the prediction of the anxious-depressed factor and the NR3C1 1-F 290

- 291 promoter methylation (effects of stratification factors and confounders not shown). Anxious-
- depressed symptoms and methylation are analysed together as correlated outcomes in an
- 293 SEM. Coefficients for the effects of confounders and stratification factors are not shown
- 294 (stratum, maternal age, maternal smoking, maternal education, no partner, neighbourhood
- deprivation). The models reported used robust standard errors to guard against inferential
- errors due to non-normality. In order to provide conventional model fit statistics the models
- 297 were run without robust standard errors and the statistics from this reported in the final row of
- the table.
- 299
- 300

We then tested the prediction that in boys there would be independent and additive effects of prenatal and postnatal depression, by estimating the model (not shown in the Table) for boys without the interaction term. This showed a significant effect on child anxiety-depression of postnatal depression (standardised coefficient 0.17, CI 0.04 to 0.30, p = .011) and an effect of similar magnitude, that was non-significant, of prenatal depression (0.15, CI -0.02 to 0.33, p=.080). Independent effects on methylation were not seen (prenatal 0.05, CI -0.17 to 0.27, p=.640; postnatal 0.13, CI -.09 to 0.36, p=.241).

Figure 3 displays how the interactions between prenatal and postnatal depression in the 308 prediction of anxious-depressed symptoms differed between girls and boys. It can be seen that 309 in girls, at a low level of prenatal depression (1 standard deviation below the mean), increasing 310 postnatal depression was strongly associated with increasing child anxious-depressed 311 312 symptoms, while at a high level there was no association. With prenatal depression at the mean, the association was intermediate between the low and high prenatal levels. In boys, by contrast, 313 as evidenced in parallel regression lines, there was no interplay between prenatal and postnatal 314 maternal depression. 315

316

### FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

As shown in Figure 4, the effects of prenatal-postnatal mismatch on methylation were again strongly evident in girls, with the greatest association between postnatal depression and methylation in the presence of low prenatal depression, and progressively weaker associations at higher levels of prenatal depression. The progressive effect of prenatal depression was also evident in boys but was less strong.

322

### FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE

In girls, replacing the correlation between the methylation and anxiety-depression factors 324 by a causal effect, higher NR3C1 methylation at 14 months was associated with higher anxiety-325 depressed symptoms (standardised coefficient 0.36 CI 0.05 to 0.67, p=.025), illustrated in the 326 left hand panel of Figure 5. The residual direct effect of the prenatal-postnatal interaction on 327 child anxiety-depression symptoms was substantially reduced, from -0.19 (shown in Table 2) 328 to -0.06 (CI -0.26 to 0.15), becoming wholly nonsignificant (p=.600). For boys there was no 329 evidence of an effect of methylation on symptoms (standardised coefficient -0.03, CI -0.31 to 330 0.24, p=.820). 331

332

### FIGURE 5 ABOUT HERE

### Discussion

Many, although not all, of our predictions based on the evolutionary T-W and PAR hypotheses 334 for sex-biased parental investment and fetal programming were supported in this longitudinal 335 study, from 20 weeks of pregnancy and over the first 5 years of children's lives. Mismatching 336 between prenatal and postnatal maternal depression was associated with greater anxious-337 338 depressed symptoms and *NR3C1* methylation in girls. Both effects were most evident in girls exposed to high levels of postnatal depression. Their symptoms and NR3C1 methylation were 339 higher where their mothers had reported low levels of depression during pregnancy, in line 340 with the idea that they had not been prepared by the fetal environment for postnatal exposure 341 to maternal depression. In girls only, elevated NR3C1 was associated with higher anxious-342 depressed symptoms and mediated the association between maternal depression and child 343 symptoms. In boys, there was no evidence of effects of prenatal - postnatal depression 344 mismatch on anxious-depressed symptoms. However, and contrary to our prediction, the 345 prenatal-postnatal mismatch effect on NR3C1 methylation was seen in boys as well as in girls, 346 although the size of the effect was smaller. 347

The strengths of the investigation include a prospective study with a general population 348 sample, accounting for a number of plausible confounds and factors associated with attrition. 349 Also, by using SEM to create a latent variable from measurement at 3 time points over 2.5 350 years, we reduced the risks arising from multiple testing for each time point, and we were able 351 to examine the predictions in relation to persistently elevated symptoms likely to confer risk 352 for an elevated trajectory for anxious-depressed symptoms over childhood [43]. The method 353 adopted for missing methylation data exploited the properties of maximum likelihood for 354 accounting for data assumed missing at random. Most missingness was by design because of 355 the systematic stratification of the intensive sample, thus meeting this assumption, and 356 inclusion of multiple covariates allowed us account for unplanned attrition. It is nevertheless 357

possible that not all the necessary confounds to deal with non-random missingness wereidentified.

There were four principal limitations in relation to the measurement of NR3C1 360 methylation. First, peripheral cell samples, both from blood and saliva, are heterogeneous, 361 which may account for some of the variability in methylation. This can introduce a confound 362 363 where other variables are associated with cellular heterogeneity [44]. Second, while studies combining peripheral cell and CNS post mortem estimations suggest that they are often 364 substantially correlated [45], it cannot be assumed that DNA methylation in peripheral tissues 365 reflects methylation in relevant CNS regions. This is particularly a concern because of 366 substantial variations in epigenetic effects across brain regions and cell types. Specifically, it 367 cannot be assumed that variations in the NR3C1 1-F promoter in saliva reflect variations in 368 glucocorticoid receptor synthesis in the hippocampal regions involved in HPA axis regulation. 369 Third DNA methylation is one of a number of an epigenetic processes that regulate gene 370 expression, and so does not provide a direct measure of that expression. 'Mediation' in this 371 report, as in the field more widely [46], refers to statistical findings consistent with, but not 372 direct evidence of, epigenetic mediation. Fourth, there are many combinations of CpG sites, 373 374 even on a relatively circumscribed region such as the NR3C1 1-F promoter that could be examined, leading to the risk of multiple analyses and 'significant' findings occurring by 375 376 chance. Fifth, although we accounted for several plausible confounds, environmental variables 377 other than those included in analyses may better account for the findings.

No one study can establish the validity of estimates of peripheral cell methylation as indices of CNS methylation, however a finding of the same pattern of associations for peripheral cell methylation and for behaviours that undoubtedly reflect CNS function, and for mediation of the association between maternal depression and symptoms by *NR3C1* methylation is relevant to the issue. As is evident from the SEM models, and as seen in Figures 3 and 4, there were striking similarities between the patterns of associations involving 384 interactions between prenatal and postnatal depression and sex differences, not only for child 385 anxious-depressed symptom but also for *NR3C1* methylation. Furthermore, in this study we 386 reduced risks arising from multiple analyses of many potential methylation sites by examining 387 only one site that had been identified from a meta-analysis of previous studies [24].

### 388 Conclusions

Our findings are important in five major ways. First, they provide pointers to study 389 designs that could be introduced into animal models where mechanisms can be examined using 390 experimentally controlled risks. These would, for example, examine the interplay between 391 prenatal and postnatal risks in relation to the role of the placenta in regulating passage of 392 393 maternal glucocorticoids to the foetus, which in turn can be controlled by further epigenetic modifications of specific placental genes [47]. Second, they illustrate how evolutionary 394 hypotheses regarding parental investment in offspring can be used to generate novel, and in 395 some ways surprising, predictions regarding parenting and early development in humans [48]. 396 Third, testing in this way can generate further productive questions. In this study, while there 397 was good evidence for mismatch effects in females on NR3C1 methylation and child 398 399 symptoms, and for a sex difference in relation to child symptoms, the prenatal-postnatal depression mismatch was also associated with NR3C1 methylation in males, which was 400 contrary to the predictions. Further study is needed into the conditions under which fetal 401 programming effects are seen in males as well as females, and under what conditions there are 402 sex differences in the behavioural implications of NR3C1 methylation. Fourth they show that, 403 404 even though human development is subject to many complex social and psychological influences, biological mechanisms conserved across many non-human species, can be highly 405 406 influential. Fifth they suggest that some prenatal effects on epigenetic and behavioural 407 outcomes in early childhood, differ radically in males and females, and so further study of sex specific mechanisms is needed. This will have implications for our understanding of the 408 409 biology of psychiatric disorders arising in childhood.

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419

### 420 Authors' contributions

JH, HS, AP designed the study, CM, JQ conducted the methylation estimations, JH, HS, NW
supervised data collection, JH, AP, NW analysed the data, JH, AP, HS, NW wrote the paper,
and all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### 425 **Conflict of interests**

426 None of the authors has a conflict of interest.

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